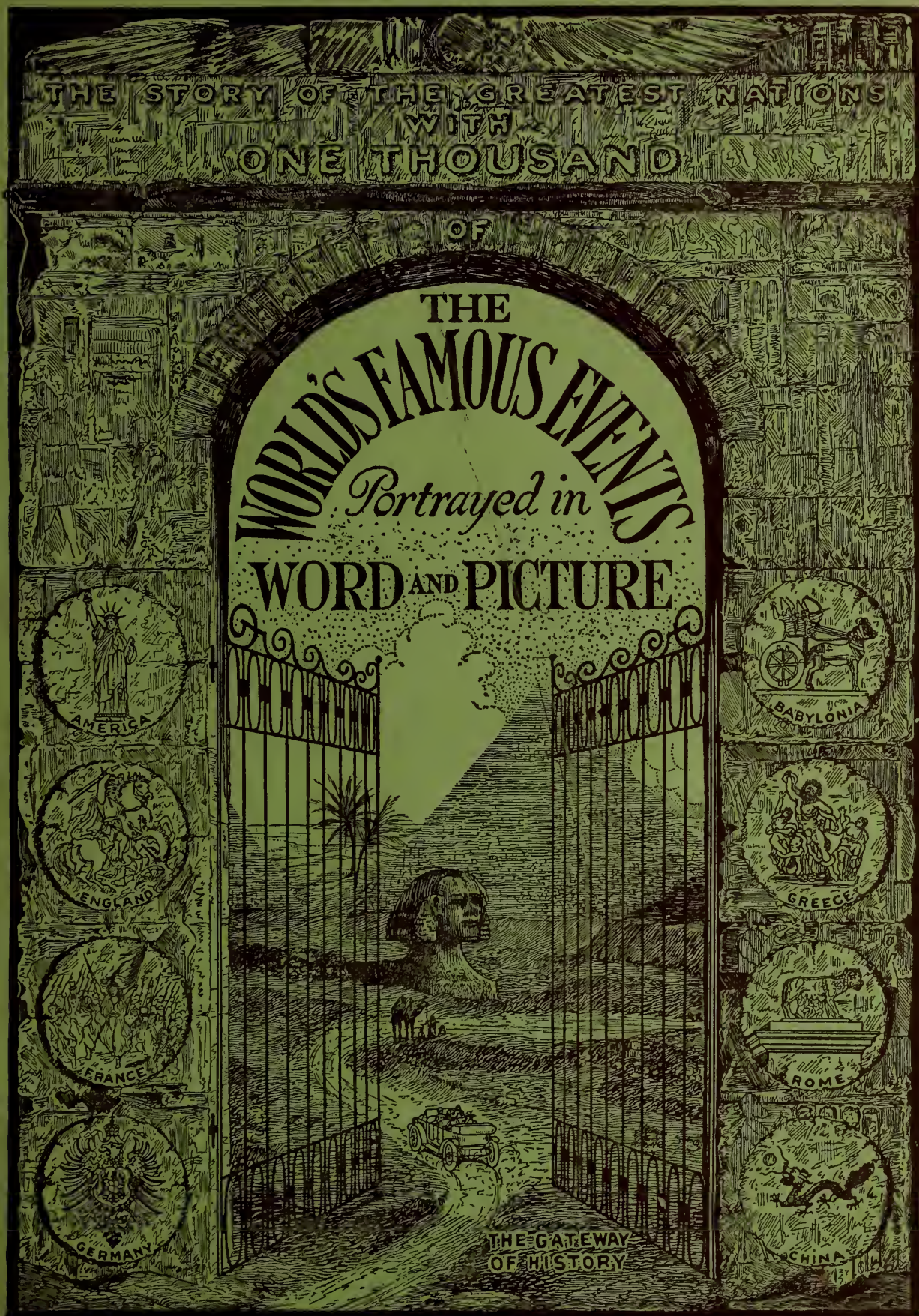


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# THE HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

BY JAMES M. SMITH

Vol. I.

The first part of the history of the United States of America is the story of the early years of the nation. It begins with the discovery of the continent by Christopher Columbus in 1492. The early years of the nation were marked by the struggle for independence from Great Britain. The American Revolution was a war of independence that began in 1775 and ended in 1783. The new nation was founded on the principles of liberty and justice for all. The Constitution was written in 1787 and the first President, George Washington, was inaugurated in 1789. The early years of the nation were a time of great growth and development. The United States became a powerful nation and a leader in the world.





## ENGLAND BECOMES MASTER OF INDIA

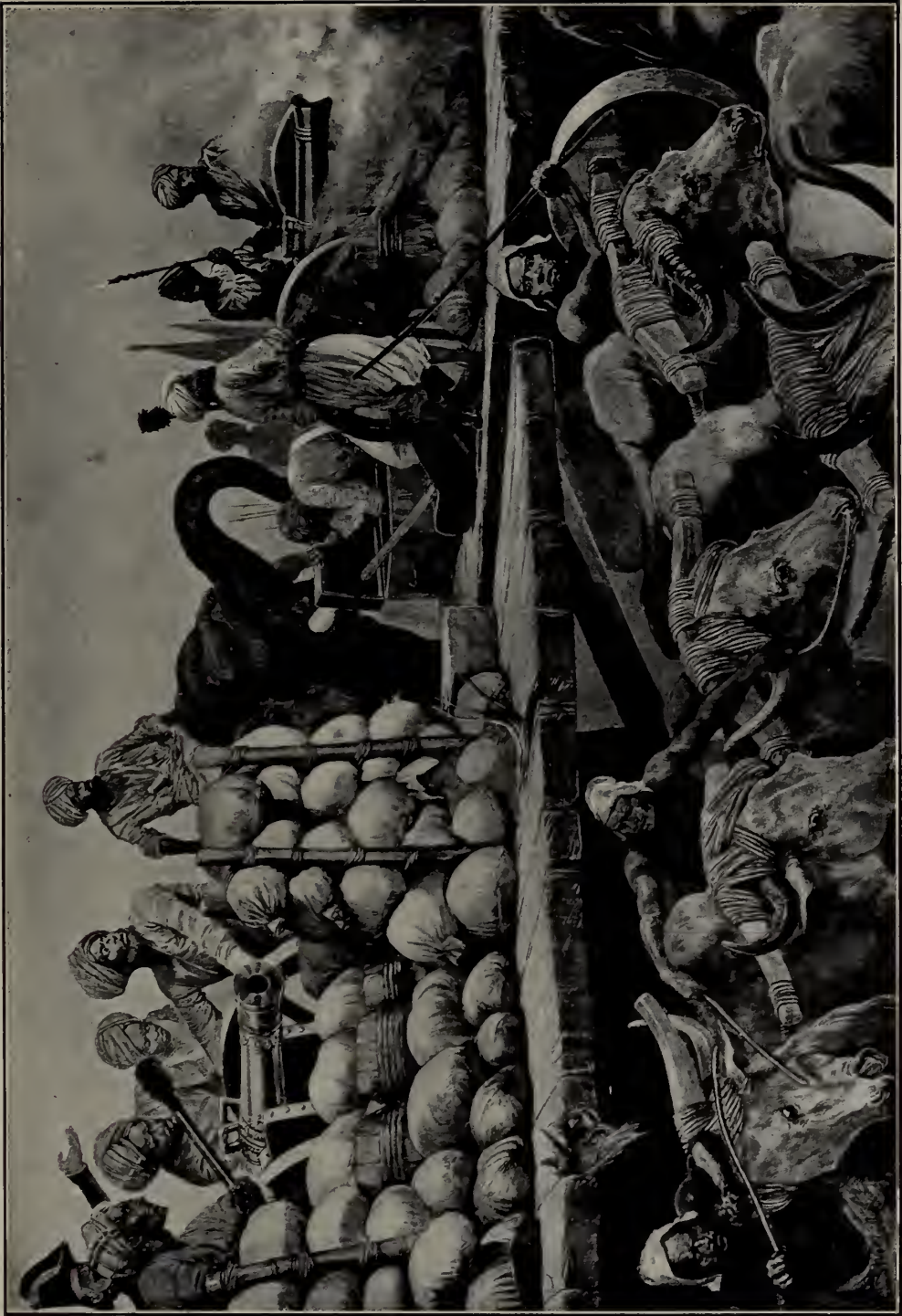
(Clive Defeats the Prince of Bengal at Plassey)

*From the historical series by R. Caton Woodville*

IN addition to the successes gained over France and the Jacobites, during the reign of King George II, England also began at that time her most important colonial acquisitions, those which started her vast empire of to-day. Her first triumph was in India. There she had possessed some trading ports for a century past; but the native princes of India were still independent and were much swayed by the French, who were far stronger than the English in Asia. England sent out as a clerk to southern India the remarkable military genius, Robert Clive. Necessity drove him to organize his fellow-clerks to defend their little trading posts against attacks by the natives, and in 1751 Clive won a victory at Arcot which gave to England the control of southern India.

This angered the far more powerful rulers of northern India; and the strongest of them, the Prince of Bengal, seized the English post at Calcutta, and imprisoned its people in the "black hole of Calcutta," where they died in agony. Clive marched to avenge them, and in the battle of Plassey (1757) won supremacy over northern India. This battle therefore marks the establishment of England's Indian empire. At Plassey the Prince of Bengal, having learned the use of cannon from the English, adopted the idea with truly oriental splendor, by mounting his guns on a platform borne on the backs of elephants. Thus he could move his battery where he wished. Fortunately for the English, however, his men had no idea of aiming their cannon effectively.







ENGLAND 1800-1850





## ENGLAND CONQUERS CANADA

(General Wolfe Storms the Heights of Quebec)

*From the historical series by R. Caton Woodville*

NOT only India but also Canada was added to England's possessions under George II. Canada had been settled by Frenchmen and grown to be a powerful province, a rival to the English colonies further south. King George, having plunged eagerly into a second war with France, sent an expedition against Canada under General Wolfe, a young soldier scarce of age but already noted for his victories. Wolfe sailed up the St. Lawrence River with his fleet, but found the strong fortress of Quebec almost impregnable. At length his men discovered a path leading up the cliffs behind the city, and Wolfe led in person a night expedition which scaled the cliffs in secret and by attacking the city from the rear captured it. This victory gave England permanent possession of Canada, which France reluctantly surrendered to her.

Wolfe was slain in the battle. On the night before, he had quoted to his officers the line from Gray's "Elegy"—

"The paths of glory lead but to the grave."

He said he would rather have written that poem than be a great general. As he lay dying and while the battle was still raging, he was told the French were fleeing. He responded: "Then I die in peace." England grieved deeply over the loss of her young hero general and poet.















## THE AGE OF STEAM BEGUN

(James Watt as a Boy Studies the Power of Steam)

*From a painting by the contemporary German artist, W. Zweigle*

**G**EORGE II was succeeded in 1760 by his son George III, who ruled England at least nominally for sixty years.

It was during his reign that this country broke away from England, leaving her North American possessions reduced to Canada and some islands in the West Indies. All Englishmen felt this to be a sad loss; but their desire at the time was less for empire and for colonies than for trade and industrial prosperity. The age of inventions and of scientific progress had begun.

England's first notable contribution to the new development was the practical steam engine, not the locomotive at first, but the stationary engine using steam as a means of power for working machinery in hoisting and manufacturing. This valuable source of power was invented by James Watt. Tradition says he conceived the idea of harnessing steam when he was still a boy. His older sister told how she had seen him sitting by the fire in their country home, watching the bubbling kettle with its dancing lid and marveling at its vigorous force.

Watt patented the steam engine in 1769. He formed a partnership for building his machines, but did not succeed in making them commercially profitable until about 1785. Many vain years were spent in the effort to convince manufacturers of the value of his invention.











## INDIAN LITERATURE

(Translated from the Sanskrit by the Rev. J. H. Colebrook, M.A., of the University of Cambridge.)

Printed by J. H. Colebrook, at the University Press, Cambridge.

**T**HE first of the two volumes of the *Indian Literature* is a translation of the *Upanishads*, the most important of the ancient Indian philosophical treatises. It is a work of great importance, and one which has long been a desideratum. The second volume is a translation of the *Yogasutra*, a treatise on the philosophy of Yoga, which is also of great importance. The translation is done in a clear and concise manner, and is well adapted for the use of students and scholars alike. The editor, J. H. Colebrook, M.A., has done a very good service in bringing these important works to the attention of the English-speaking world.





## INDIA'S LAST RALLY

(Tippoo Saib Marshals His Troops for the Defense of Seringapatam)

*From a drawing by the French artist, Emile Bayard*

THE power over the princes of India which Clive had won was extended and solidified during the reign of George III by Warren Hastings. India at that time was not ruled directly by the English Government, but by a vast mercantile firm called the East India Company. Serving under this company, Warren Hastings became the real ruler over all India. He extended English authority sometimes by fraud, sometimes by force; but everywhere he planted civilization in the place of the gorgeous but barbaric savagery of the native rulers. The disorders and irregularities of Hastings' rule led the English Government to take direct control of India; but this change of authority was not accomplished without further efforts at resistance among the Indian rulers.

The chief antagonist of England in this final struggle was the prince named Tippoo Saib, the capital of whose domains was Seringapatam. For nearly twenty years Tippoo Saib successfully disputed the English advance. At length in 1799 his capital city was stormed and captured. His fall marked the close of organized Indian resistance. Since that day England has been the sole master of India, her suzerainty being fully acknowledged by all the native rulers.













## "VICTORY OR WESTMINSTER ABBEY"

(Nelson Wins His First Great Victory off Cape St. Vincent )

*From a painting by the contemporary English artist, Frank Baden-Powell*

THE reign of George III witnessed also the epic struggle of Europe against Napoleon, in which England alone held her place undefeated by the French. For England, the warfare was chiefly naval; and her success was due to her great admiral, Nelson. The eyes of Europe were first centered upon Nelson by the sea fight of St. Vincent, off the Spanish coast in 1797.

By this time France had conquered most of her neighbors, and both Holland and Spain were forced to join her and lend her their navies against England. Nelson, as a commodore, commanded one squadron of the English ships, in the battle against the Spanish fleet off St. Vincent. He led his sailors in person in the boarding of the Spanish admiral's ship, the *St. Nicholas*, a galleon so huge that Nelson and his men climbed from their own deck into the Spaniard's cabin windows.

Nelson's cry as he attacked was "Victory or Westminster Abbey," meaning that if he failed he would at least win a death so glorious that he would be buried in that Abbey which enshrines England's most celebrated heroes. The victory at St. Vincent made Nelson England's chief admiral, and he commanded her navy through the tremendous contest against Napoleon.















## THE BATTLE OF THE NILE

(Nelson Annihilates the French Plans of Conquest in the East)

*From the painting in the Greenwich Hospital, England, by George Arnalt, A.R.A.*

IN the year following Nelson's victory at St. Vincent, Napoleon led a vast French expedition against Egypt. He planned to conquer the East and attack England by seizing her Indian empire. Nelson, commanding England's Mediterranean fleet, did not succeed in learning the whereabouts of the French ships until they had successfully transported Napoleon and his troops to Egypt, and lay in shelter within the mouth of the Nile River.

When Nelson finally located the French fleet, he boldly attacked it in its harbor. His swift vessels sailed past the line of anchored French ships, and were thus enabled to concentrate the entire English cannonade on each vessel before approaching the next. They thus destroyed the French ships one after another and only a few at the tail of the line had time to escape by taking to flight.

The battle of the Nile crushed Napoleon's project of capturing the East and gave England control of the Mediterranean. Nelson, however, had still many other battles to fight, and the last of these, off Cape Trafalgar in 1805, was the most important of all. At Trafalgar Nelson annihilated the last ships of both France and Spain and left England supreme "mistress of the seas." He died, as Wolfe had died, in the moment of his victory.













## A MASTERLY RETREAT

(Moore's Highland Regiments Drive Back the French from Corunna )

*From the historical series by R. Caton Woodville*

WHILE England thus triumphed over Napoleon at sea, she was by no means equally successful on land. Her first vigorous part in the land wars was in Spain. This country had been seized by the French, but the native peasantry refused to submit even though their king had surrendered. England in 1808 sent two armies to the peasants' aid. One under Sir Arthur Wellesley, afterward Lord Wellington, occupied Portugal. The other under Sir John Moore advanced into Spain itself.

Before Moore could reach the patriot Spanish forces, they had been completely defeated by the French. Moore was thus left alone to conduct a difficult and dangerous retreat, pursued by French troops far more numerous than his own. Moore proved his generalship by accomplishing this withdrawal successfully, despite hunger, storm and the intense cold of winter among the Spanish mountains. He reached the port of Corunna with his army intact, only to find that the fleet which was to carry his troops away had not yet arrived. Turning upon the French, Moore beat them back from Corunna, being specially aided by the dashing charges of his highland Scotch regiments. Then the expected fleet hove in sight at last, and the army was saved. Moore himself was killed in the final confused struggle, after conducting one of the most masterly retreats known to history.













## BADAJOZ

(Wellington Cheered by His Soldiers in the Breaches of Badajoz)

*From a painting by the English-Italian artist, G. Amato*

WHILE Sir John Moore was thus driven out of northern Spain by the overwhelming French forces, the other English army under Lord Wellington maintained its position in Portugal for five years, and ultimately drove the French from Spain. For the first four years Wellington could do little more than hold his own. He erected strongly fortified lines at Torres Vedras on the Portuguese frontier; and the French were unable to capture these. Each English effort at advance, however, found the French too strong and too well commanded to offer any hope of success. The most desperate fighting was around the two fortresses of Ciudad Rodrigo and Badajoz, which commanded respectively the northern and southern roads between Spain and Portugal. These were taken and retaken in many valiant attacks. Badajoz in particular was first held by the English, then stormed by the French in 1810, then besieged by the English, who won a desperate battle beneath its walls in 1811, but could not take the fort, and were finally driven back by a French advance.

In 1812 Wellington undertook in person the storming of Badajoz, marching against it suddenly in early spring. His troops charged heroically up the breeches made by his cannon, and won the long disputed citadel. Then they cheered their general as he mounted on foot by the terrible pathway they had made for him.











## DOCTRINE OF THE TRINITY

As set forth in the Nicene Creed

By the Council of Constantinople, A.D. 381

The doctrine of the Trinity is the doctrine of the unity of God, and of the divinity of the Son and the Holy Spirit. It is the doctrine of the Father, the Son, and the Holy Spirit, who are co-equal, co-eternal, and co-substantial with the Father.

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## THE SUPREME MOMENT AT WATERLOO

(Wellington Orders the Final Advance of the English Army)

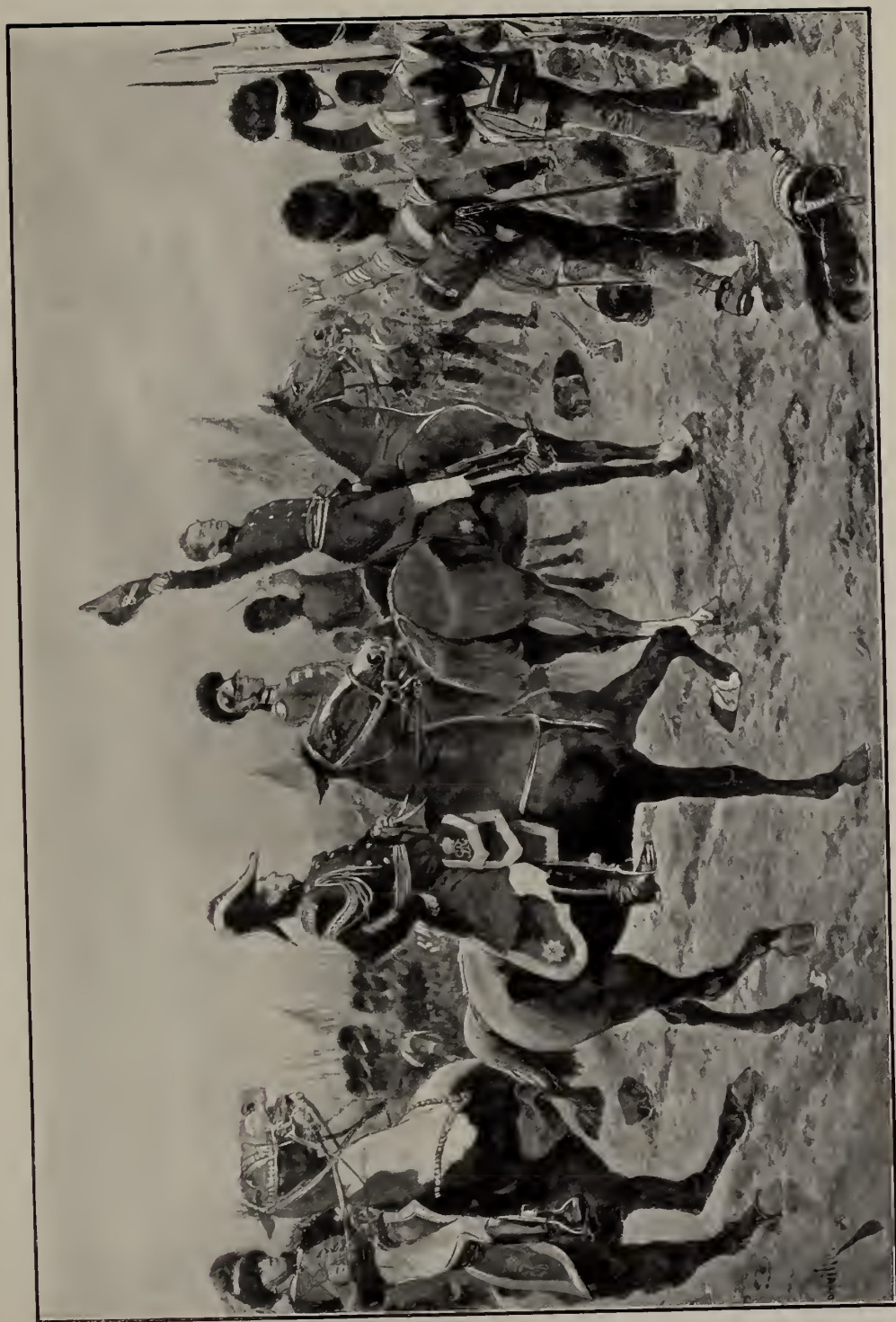
*From the historical series by R. Caton Woodville*

WELLINGTON did not succeed in driving the French from Spain until after Napoleon's Russian disaster compelled the great French general to summon most of his soldiers to his aid. Then at last Wellington's troops set Spain free, defeating the French there and following them into France.

In the last campaign against Napoleon, Wellington was called to take command of the main army of the English, which confronted and overthrew the mighty French conqueror at Waterloo. The battle was desperately fought. All day long the English stood on the defensive at the summit of a little slope up which charged column after column of the French. The English lines held like a stone wall; but the slaughter on both sides was dreadful. Wellington stood all day a little apart with his spyglass; he was watching for the Prussian army which had promised to come to his aid. As he saw his men constantly falling around him, he prayed for "night or the Prussians" to save him from disaster. At last, when he had almost despaired, the Prussians came.

Wellington knew this was the supreme moment of victory. Raising his hat he cried, "Now let the whole line advance." They did, so did the Prussians; and the Empire of Napoleon went down before them.













## QUEEN VICTORIA'S WEDDING

(The Marriage Ceremony in Westminster Abbey in 1840)

*From a sketch made at the time by H. Barbant*

**T**HE aged king George III died in 1820. He had reigned so long that the two sons who followed him on the throne were already old men and ruled but a few years each. At the death of the second, the crown devolved upon the daughter of a third son of George III. This was the celebrated Queen Victoria, who came to the throne of England in 1837, a young girl of seventeen, and reigned for over sixty years.

Naturally one of the first questions which agitated the minds of the ministers who were really governing England in this young girl's name, was whom she should marry. England's former great queen, Elizabeth, had refused to marry any one, with the result that after her death the kingdom passed to a foreign king, the Scottish James, who had pleased nobody. The same unfortunate consequences had followed on Queen Anne's death. Hence everybody was very anxious that Victoria should marry and have English children to reign after her. She proved quite amenable to advice, and her choice of a husband agreed with the judgment of her ministers. She selected her cousin, Prince Albert of Saxe Coburg Gotha, a little semi-independent German duchy. Albert was just Victoria's age, a handsome, noble-spirited young man, just graduated from a German university. The young couple were wedded with much ceremony in 1840 and lived very happily together until Albert's death in 1861.



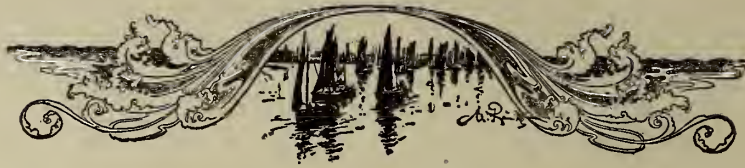












## THE REPEAL OF THE CORN LAWS

(Sir Robert Peel Leads England to Free Trade)

*From a painting by the English artist, T. Walter Wilson, R.I.*

THE early days of Victoria's reign were times of violent internal agitation in England. Before the Napoleonic era, Englishmen had been perhaps the freest, most self-governing people of Europe. But the wave of republicanism that then swept over Europe, the uprisings of the people everywhere, had paved the way to liberty; and gradually England saw other nations passing her in government reforms. Some steps in the way of improving England's antiquated and unfair election system were undertaken even before Victoria's accession. Then in 1841 Sir Robert Peel became Prime Minister, and step by step he led England toward the adoption of "free trade." This meant that the products of other countries could be brought into England without being taxed. Hence they could be bought by Englishmen for low prices, and living became cheaper.

All of these changes were really forced upon the government by the lower classes. Most of the upper classes, who supply the members of parliament, were averse to any change. But mobs rioted in London and all through England. These were specially bitter against the "Corn Laws," which, by taxing corn, made bread and all grain foods dear. So at length Sir Robert Peel began a series of celebrated speeches, in the course of which he convinced both himself and parliament that free trade was the proper policy for the nation.











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## THE RELIEF OF LUCKNOW

(The Sepoy Rebellion Put Down by English Troops: The Attack at Lucknow)

*From a painting by the English artist, N. Dupruy*

**I**N 1857 the English in India faced a sudden terrible outbreak of the natives, which is known as the Sepoy Rebellion. It began with the Sepoy troops, natives who had been trained to fight under English officers, and who were proud of themselves, their regiments and their officers. They were, however, devout Mahometans, and a trifling incident which they misunderstood, roused them to frenzy. A new style of rifle was supplied them, in using which they had to bite off the end of each cartridge. Unluckily these cartridges were greased, and the grease was pig fat, and a Mahometan's religion forbids him to eat pig in any form. The Sepoys thought the English were trying by this subtle means to destroy their religion and ruin their souls. So they rebelled.

The revolt spread over most of northern India, and was accompanied by massacres of the English and cruel barbarities. Among its most dramatic incidents was the relief of Lucknow. A small party of English were besieged there by an army of the rebels. The defenders were reduced to the last extremity, exhausted, starving, when in the far distance they heard the music of a well-known Highland air, "The Campbells are Coming." It was indeed Sir Colin Campbell and his regiment of Highlanders coming to their relief; and in a gallant charge the Highlanders put the besiegers to flight, and rescued the despairing garrison.









makes men reckless and increases crime and drunkenness, for people grow so hopeless that they do not care what becomes of them. Think of the ferocity of the laws which made two hundred and thirty-five offences punishable with death! Many of these offences in our day would not bring a penalty of more than a slight fine or a few days' imprisonment. The jails were so filthy and overrun with vermin that death was preferable to a dwelling in them. John Howard, the philanthropist, began his beneficent labors in 1773, and did a great deal to lessen these horrors.

But improvements came and matters gradually righted themselves, as they always do. A nobleman owned a coal mine six miles from Manchester, where people wanted to buy his coal; but the cost of bringing it over hill and valley to their homes was so great that they could not afford the expense. James Brindley, an engineer, said the difficulty could be remedied by the construction of a canal. He was laughed at, but he persevered, though the roughness of the country made the work difficult. The Bridgewater Canal was a perfect success, and was the first one made in England. Brindley constructed other and much more important canals, a perfect network of which now intersect the kingdom. It was this famous engineer who was once jocularly asked: "What do you suppose rivers were created for?" To which he made instant answer: "Undoubtedly to feed navigable canals."

James Watt secured his first patent for an improved steam engine in 1769. You may have read how, in his youth, he caught the idea from watching the steam issue from the mouth of a tea kettle. I wish we could believe the anecdote to the effect that when he appeared before George III., the King asked him pleasantly: "Well, my young man, what have you to sell?" The inventor replied: "That which all kings covet—*power*." Soon the hum and throb of steam engines was heard in the mines and factories. At first this caused widespread distress by throwing many laborers out of work. There was some rioting, yet in the end steam wrought a great change for good. Great manufacturing towns sprang up, population increased, and wealth grew. The north took on a new life through her young cities, all pulsing with industry—Birmingham, Manchester, Nottingham, Leeds, Sheffield, Leicester, and Liverpool. Steamboats which had come into use in America in 1807 appeared in England in 1812, and the first one crossed the Atlantic in 1819. Hargreaves, Arkwright, Crompton, and others made many improvements in the machinery for spinning and weaving, adding an impetus to every industry.

Dr. Joseph Priestly, in 1774, discovered oxygen, the most important element in nature, and the discovery "laid the foundation of modern chemical science." Strange as it may sound, the great city of London was not lighted at night until the latter part of the reign of George III. The few oil lamps did no

more than make darkness visible, and highway robbers plied their trade like so many prowling beasts in a jungle. In 1815 a company, in the face of strong opposition, arranged for lighting the city with gas, which had already been introduced in a number of other places. When the new system was established, it did more, as a writer has said, to prevent crime than all the Government had accomplished since the days of Alfred. Sir Humphry Davy invented the miner's safety lamp, and declined to ask for a patent, saying that the knowledge of the thousands of lives the invention would save gave him more pleasure than all he could receive in the way of money profits.

The slave trade still stained the flag of Great Britain, but there was a growing sentiment against it. It had been declared as early as 1772 by the Court of King's Bench at Westminster that slavery could no longer legally exist in England, yet her colonies still employed negro slaves, who were brought from Africa. The Society of Friends, or Quakers, denounced the wicked traffic in the strongest language of which those good people were capable, and Thomas Clarkson and William Wilberforce led an unfaltering fight against the slave trade. It required twenty years of continuous agitation before, in 1807, Parliament passed an act abolishing the frightful traffic. I have told you of the fearful severity of the penal laws, which were the harshest of any nation in Europe. Sir Samuel Romilly succeeded after a time in abolishing the punishment of death for most of the lesser offences.

Many names became famous in letters during the reign of George III. Among the first was Dr. Samuel Johnson, author of the well-known English Dictionary, which has formed the basis of most of those that came after it. Oliver Goldsmith, his intimate friend, was lazy, witty, improvident, but the master of a style exquisite for its purity, and the author of the novel, "The Vicar of Wakefield"; the poem, "The Deserted Village," and the comedy, "She Stoops to Conquer." Edward Gibbon's "Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire" (1776) marks the beginning of modern history writing, and Adam Smith's "Inquiry into the Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations" distinctly affected legislation as to trade and finance. Richard Brinsley Sheridan wrote the brilliant comedies, "The Rivals" and "The School for Scandal." William Cowper was among the early poets, but there soon appeared Burns, Byron, Shelley, and Sir Walter Scott. Scott also turned his thoughts to novel writing, and gave the world a series of masterpieces, which earned him the title of the "Wizard of the North." Toward the latter part of this period Coleridge and Wordsworth awakened admiration as poets, and Maria Edgeworth and Jane Austen wrote excellent stories of Irish and English life. The lovable Charles Lamb, author of "The Essays of Elia," belonged to the succeeding reign.

In painting England began to forge to the front under George II. William

Hogarth drew coarse but powerful pictures of low life. In 1768, four years after Hogarth's death, the Royal Academy was founded, the first president being Sir Joshua Reynolds, the famous portrait painter. The other painters include Richard Wilson, a delineator of landscapes, and Thomas Gainsborough, noted for his admirable portraits, and afterward for his landscapes. Turner excelled all his predecessors in his pictures of nature.

The ignorance among the people was deplorable. Not one peasant in a dozen could write his name, and few could read a newspaper. England had no cheap books or newspapers, and most of the people knew of the rest of the world only in a vague shadowy way, as children gain knowledge from fables and folklore. But a change was going on and brighter days were not far off. Some of the signs appeared in the fashions of dress. The cocked hats, curled wigs, and extravagant frippery were giving place to plain and sober garb—sure omen of still greater changes that were at hand.

The American Revolution saw the press rise to importance and power. The *Chronicle*, *Post*, *Herald*, and *Times* came into existence, and some of the ablest philosophers and statesmen used their columns for laying their views before the public. John Wilkes was a talented but abusive writer who attacked the King and his friends with such vigor that an attempt was made by the Government to punish him, but it came to naught. The "Junius" letters attracted wide attention, and were perhaps the most unique and famous political effusions of modern times. Many attempts have been made to solve the mystery of their authorship, but to this day it is not clear who wielded the pungent pen.

George III. was a man of excellent character, conscientious but stubborn to the last degree. When he had made up his mind to follow a certain cause, argument was wasted upon him: he was ready at any time to walk straight to the scaffold for conscience' sake. But for this immovable obstinacy there would have been no American Revolution, for the best men in his kingdom opposed coercing the colonies into submission to the tyrannous acts of the King. Underneath all this stubbornness, it must be remembered, lay a stratum of moral principle, and it is impossible to withhold our respect from this sovereign, who unquestionably had the good of his country at heart in everything he did.

In September, 1761, he married the Princess Charlotte Sophia, daughter of Charles, Duke of Mecklenburg-Strelitz, and the two were the parents of fifteen children. His mind gave way several times—in 1764, in 1788, in 1801, and in 1804. In 1810, his final insanity appeared. He was greatly annoyed by the savage attacks of Wilkes and the keen satire of the Letters of Junius, as well as by the proposals to emancipate Roman Catholics, and by the awful excesses of the French Revolution of 1789. Two maniacs, Margaret Nicolson and a man named Hatfield, attempted his life. He was so provoked by the



marriages of two of his brothers with the widows of subjects that he secured the passage of the Royal Marriage Act in 1772, by which the descendants of George II., excepting the issues of princesses married into foreign families, were not allowed to marry under the age of twenty-five without the consent of the sovereign. After that age marriages may be contracted upon due notice, unless both houses of Parliament express their opposition. The enormous debts and the scandalous dissipation of his eldest son, who became George IV., the young man's private marriage with Mrs. Fitzherbert, the Roman Catholic widow of two husbands, and the scandals of his public marriage with his cousin, Caroline of Brunswick, proved that even a marriage bill cannot cure all the domestic miseries of a sovereign.

It was in 1764 that George Grenville succeeded Lord Bute as premier and began those oppressive measures which brought on the American Revolution. In 1782, Lord Shelburne was made Prime Minister, with Mr. Pitt, son of the Earl of Chatham, as Chancellor of the Exchequer, and a year later the famous coalition ministry was formed between Mr. Fox and Lord North. The King was so displeased that, as soon as Mr. Fox's India Bill had been rejected by the House of Lords, he sent an order to him and Lord North to return him at once their seals of office, and to do it *by messenger*, since he was unwilling to have a personal interview with them. Mr. Pitt became Prime Minister the next day. The courage with which the King opposed the coalition and his firm course toward the two men added much to his popularity.

George III. could not be persuaded that the admission of the Catholics to political power would not be a violation of his coronation oath, in consequence of which Pitt and his colleagues retired from office in 1801, and a new ministry was formed, headed by Mr. Addington, but this administration proved incompetent, and Mr. Pitt, in 1804, again came into control. He died, however, in 1806, and the Grenville party entered office. In 1807, Lord Grenville and his colleagues joined in an attempt to change the King's opinion regarding Catholic Emancipation, but it was labor thrown away, and the Perceval administration succeeded them.

During this period occurred England's long and glorious struggle against Napoleon. The war began as early as 1793, the new and amazingly vigorous French Republic having included England in the number of her foes in that defiant declaration of war against all Europe. The early land operations brought England no honor, but she at once established her superiority at sea. The French ships were defeated and driven out of the English Channel. British fleets controlled the Mediterranean and the Atlantic. Spain and Holland, the great sea powers, allied themselves with France. England crushed them both in two famous naval battles in 1797.

The Spaniards were defeated off Cape St. Vincent in the Atlantic. It was this battle that first centred attention on England's greatest naval hero, Nelson. He had already risen to the rank of commodore, and, although not nominally in command, he bore the brunt of the fighting at St. Vincent. He led his men on board a huge Spanish ship with the cry, "Victory or Westminster Abbey!" meaning that if he failed he would, by a glorious death, earn a burial place in the great abbey where England shrines her heroic dead. The words have become famous, and "Victory or Westminster Abbey!" is still the cry with which England's heroes lead forlornest hopes.

The Dutch were soon afterward defeated off Camperdown by Admiral Duncan. They made a sturdy and gallant fight, but almost their entire fleet was either sunk or captured. It was in this same year of 1797—in fact, in the interval between the two great sea-fights—that England had to face a widespread mutiny among the sailors of her navy.

The men refused to fight, imprisoned their officers, and demanded from Parliament the redress of certain serious grievances. The government had to forgive and satisfy them on almost every point before they would consent to return to duty. Soon after, a second and much less justified mutiny broke out. The mass of the sailors, however, refused to uphold this further complaint. It fell through, and the ringleaders were hanged.

In 1798, Napoleon, having risen to the head of French affairs, undertook his expedition to Egypt. Nelson, now Admiral, was in command of the British fleet in the Mediterranean, and gained worldwide fame by attacking Napoleon's ships at Aboukir, in the mouth of the River Nile, defeating and almost wholly destroying them. By the "Battle of the Nile" the French conqueror and his entire army became practically prisoners in Egypt. Napoleon got back to France by a daring flight through the British blockade, but his army could not follow him, until a treaty of peace with England allowed of their being carried home by the very ships that had held them in exile.

The Powers of the North—Russia, Sweden, and Denmark—next formed a naval league against England. Denmark's strong fleet was defeated by Nelson off Copenhagen in 1801. In this battle the heroic Admiral was once more nominally under the command of an officer of higher rank. So determinedly did the Danish fleet and shore batteries return the English fire that the nominal commander had enough of the cannonade and hoisted a signal for the Britons to retreat. Nelson, white with the rage of battle, raised his telescope to one eye, the sight of which had been destroyed in a previous battle. "I really cannot see any such signal," he said to his men. "We will have to go on fighting." And they did—and won.

The short-lived peace between England and France was followed in 1803

by deeper and more deadly war, a war that ceased only with Napoleon's downfall. Its sudden announcement found over ten thousand Englishmen in France. Napoleon promptly arrested them, and they remained prisoners for eleven years.

During all these years, while the two great foes swayed back and forward in their desperate grapple, the other states of Europe were tossed hither and thither like children in the throes of an earthquake, and clung in feeble alliance to the skirts now of one rival, now of the other. Napoleon conquered all central Europe, but England conquered all the waters of the earth. We have seen her fleet victorious over Frenchman, Spaniard, Hollander, and Dane. Now, in the greatest triumph of all, Nelson defeated the French and Spanish navies combined, and perished in the hour of his most glorious victory.

This celebrated battle of Trafalgar was fought because of Napoleon's attempt to invade England. All his forces were gathered at Boulogne to cross the Channel; but first he must be rid of the enemy's fleet. So his Admirals were ordered to deceive Nelson by pretended flight, and as he pursued them, they were to evade him on the ocean and return to Boulogne. "If I can be master of the Channel for only twelve hours," said the great conqueror, "England is ended."

The plan almost succeeded. Nelson pursued the fleeing ships, with scorn. Some of them escaped him, and were returning; but off Cape Finisterre, on the Spanish coast, a small English squadron under Admiral Calder met them by chance, checked them, and drove them to seek shelter in the harbor of Cadiz.

Perhaps this battle of Finisterre saved England. At any rate, Napoleon abandoned his camp at Boulogne, and found another use for his armies. Meanwhile, all the French and Spanish men-of-war gathered at Cadiz, and there Nelson still following in pursuit, found them. They outranked his ships in both size and number, and sailed out of the harbor to attack him off Cape Trafalgar.

Nelson hoisted from his flagship the stern and simple signal, "England expects every man to do his duty!" and the battle began. It raged for four hours, and resulted in the complete defeat of the Spaniards and the French. England remained undisputed mistress of the seas, and never since has her supremacy been seriously questioned. The great Admiral was shot in the height of the contest, and, though mortally wounded, remained listening with joy to the cheers of his men as one of the enemy's ships surrendered after the other. He died just at the close of the battle.

The remaining years of war with France took on a new phase. England, unmolested at sea, sought to meet her mighty foe on land, supporting each nation that revolted under Napoleon's oppression. Most important of these



struggles was that known as the Peninsular War, which broke out in Spain in 1808.

Sir Arthur Wellesley, afterward the Duke of Wellington, who had already gained fame in India, was sent by England to the aid of the Spanish patriots. He won an important battle at Vimiero, but presently a truce held his hand, and then Sir John Moore was given the chief command.

Moore handled his troops well, but the Spaniards were not able to support him. He was obliged to retreat from the Spanish mountains to the coast of Portugal in the dead of winter. His men suffered terribly, but at last turned upon the shore, and, almost in the shadow of the English fleet, repulsed their pursuers in the battle of Corunna (January, 1809). Moore was killed in the battle and buried by his men in a hastily dug grave on the ramparts of Corunna. Then they retreated to their ships. Wolfe's well-known poem tells the story:

Not a drum was heard, not a funeral note,  
As his corpse to the rampart we hurried;  
Not a soldier discharged his farewell shot  
O'er the grave where our hero we buried.

Sir Arthur Wellesley was now given the chief command. He drove the French from Portugal without a battle, and defeated them in Spain at Talavera, for which he was made Lord Wellington. It was not, however, until 1812 that Wellington felt himself sufficiently strong to make an aggressive campaign. Then he pushed the French backward. He stormed their mighty fortresses of Ciudad Rodrigo, and Badajoz, entering the latter himself on foot, through the great breach in the wall, amid the cheering of his soldiers. Then he defeated the French in a great battle at Salamanca, and again at Vitoria, in 1813.

By this time Napoleon was in the toils of his Russian disaster, and the weakened forces that he left in Spain were easily swept back into their own land. The last battle of the Peninsular War was fought in 1814, at Toulouse, on the soil of France itself. At that moment the Prussian and allied forces were already masters of Paris.

When Napoleon, escaping from Elba, made one more bid for power, he knew well that England and Prussia were his chief opponents. They were once more first in the field against him, and it was they who under Wellington's command defeated him at Waterloo. All day long in that last great battle the squares of English infantry resisted the assaults of France's bravest veterans. At length, when it seemed as if human flesh and blood could endure no longer, the Prussian reinforcements arrived. Wellington, who had been anxiously studying the field with his spyglass, closed it. "Let the whole line advance!" he said; and the Britons rolled in one huge wave over the despairing foe.



Napoleon fled to a British frigate. The gigantic war was over, the French Emperor an exile, and Wellington the hero of all the world. Alas! that Nelson had not lived to share the glory!

Let us look back, to speak of what was to England but a side issue in this tremendous struggle. Her arrogance and oppression upon the ocean proved unendurable to the United States; and our "War of 1812" resulted. We had no fleet to match against England's, but neither could she spare her entire fleet to attack us. And ship for ship our sailors taught her that there were sea-fighters as good, perhaps better, than hers. The English statesmen were loud in complaints of the child they had reared to strike at them; and the peace treaty of 1815 left a still smouldering fire of ill-will between the kindred nations, which it took over half a century to obliterate.

Turn now to the puppet King, who during all these great events sat immovable and often half insane upon England's throne. In 1810, Princess Amelia, the youngest and most loved child of King George, died. His heart was broken by the blow, and his insanity returned and assumed so violent a form that most of his friends abandoned all hope of amendment. The remaining ten years of his life were brightened only at long intervals by flashes of lucidity. Then deafness was added to his other calamities, and his condition became pitiful. Once, when his reason had fluttered back again, the Queen found him singing a hymn to an accompaniment of his own on a harpsichord. When the hymn was finished, he knelt down and prayed for her, his family, and the nation, and then asked God to avert his great calamity or give him grace to bear it. Then he broke into tears, and his reason fled once more. Because of his condition, his eldest son was appointed Regent, and acted as such from 1811 till his father's death, in 1820.



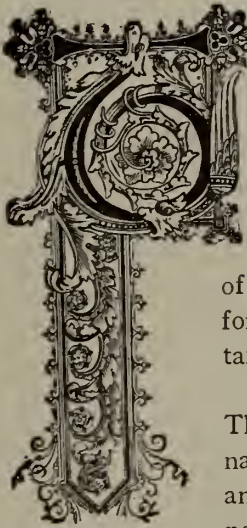
A ROYAL RECEPTION UNDER GEORGE III



THE PASSING OF THE ELECTION REFORM BILL

## Chapter CXVI

### PARLIAMENTARY REFORM.



THE royal blackguard, George IV., was fifty-seven years old when he came to the throne. While Prince of Wales his income had been more than half a million dollars; but he was always swamped by debt and cared mainly for debaucheries and shameless pleasures. By 1795 his debts had become so mountainous that Parliament undertook to wipe them out by an appropriation of \$3,000,000. Ere long he was as deeply involved as before, and had not help been given him again by the meek tax-payers, he would have been hopelessly bankrupt.

When he became King, matters grew worse than before. The nation paid more than a million dollars for his coronation. The jewels in which he appeared were borrowed, and he stole them, for his neglect to return them amounted to nothing less than that, and Parliament, as meek as ever, paid for them. Added to his incredible extravagance, this moral pervert did all he could to oppose reforms, simply because they *were* reforms. When he was made Regent in 1811, he wanted to form a Whig ministry, knowing that that was contrary to his father's wishes. Convinced that it could not be done, he accepted Tory rule, and formed an administration whose chief aim was to prevent the Catholics from having representation in Parliament. What a commentary on the idiocy of the English method of government that, while this loathsome pauper was spending thousands of dollars every day on his vices, there were tens of thousands of poor people whose shoes he was not worthy to unloose, suffering the pangs of starvation!

When the people assembled to discuss their grievances, they were dispersed by troops. So many were killed and wounded at Manchester, where the soldiers fired into the assemblage, that it was afterward referred to as the "Manchester Massacre." A man named Thistlewood and several desperate characters met in a stable in Cato Street, London, and formed a plot to murder the whole Cabinet while at dinner. The scheme was discovered, and the leader and four of his comrades were hanged.

The marriage of the Prince of Wales with his cousin, Caroline, was entered into by him on the demand of his father, because it offered a prospect of his debts being paid. She was a coarse woman, from whom the Prince soon separated. Shortly after he became King, a bill was brought into Parliament to divorce her for criminal misconduct. The examination of witnesses before the House of Lords disclosed such baseness in the King that the bill was dropped. His wife had the sympathy of the people, but the King was resolute that she should not be crowned as his consort. She appeared on the morning of the coronation before the doors of Westminster Abbey only to be turned away. She died shortly after.

Three reforms were carried through during the reign of George IV. The first was the repeal of the Corporation Act, which had excluded Dissenters from all town or corporate offices; the second was the repeal of the Test Act, passed under Charles II., to keep Catholics and Dissenters out of government offices, whether civil or military. The third and most important reform was the passage in 1829 of the Catholic Emancipation Act. This was bitterly opposed by the Duke of Wellington, who was Prime Minister, and by the King; but it went through in spite of them. It gave the Catholics the right to sit in Parliament, a privilege which had been denied them for more than a century. Daniel O'Connell, an honorable Irish gentleman, possessing great ability, became the leader of the Catholics. He succeeded after much difficulty in securing his seat in the House of Commons, and then devoted his energies to bringing about the repeal of the Act uniting Ireland with England and the restoration of the Irish Parliament. In this, however, he was doomed to failure.

A decisive change was brought about in the commercial policy. It had been the sentiment that trade should be controlled by law with a view of forcing it into those channels most advantageous to the nation or to particular classes. Thus heavy duties were laid on raw silk, while the importation of foreign-wrought silks was forbidden, the belief being that the home manufacture would thus be helped. There was violent opposition between the sheep owners, who wished to keep out foreign wool and to export their own, and the manufacturers, who wished free import and the prohibition of exports, so that the manufacture would be kept in their own hands. But the belief that a per-



son should have permission to buy and sell wherever he could do so to his best advantage was growing; and it was maintained that trade should be allowed to direct itself, or, in other words, that Free Trade was the true policy.

In 1823, William Huskisson became President of the Board of Trade and secured the passage of an Act which enabled the "King in Council" to place the shipping of foreign nations on the same footing with British shipping, on condition that the same privileges were given to British ships in the ports of such nations. He succeeded also in procuring the abolishment of the prohibition of the importation of silk manufactures, and in reducing the duties on silk. Next, the duties on imported wool were greatly reduced, and its exportation was permitted. It was in 1828, when Huskisson was Secretary of State for the Colonies, that the corn law was passed which allowed the free importation of corn upon the payment of duties, which were lessened as the price rose and increased as it fell. This legislation was bitterly fought, and its success was a great triumph.

The most appropriate and popular thing done by George IV. occurred at Windsor Castle, June 26, 1830, when he stopped living. The greatest stretch which charity will permit is the theory that the insane father of this nuisance was partly responsible for his utter unworthiness, a theory that throws the odium on the English people themselves for clinging to a system which contains the possibilities of a Charles II. or George IV. One of the greatest of English writers said of the four Georges—that three were scoundrels and the fourth a lunatic most of the time.

Since the dead King had left no direct heir, his brother, William Henry, Duke of Clarence, succeeded to the throne. He had certainly reached the age of discretion, for he was in his sixty-sixth year. He had spent his early life in the navy, was a bluff, hearty fellow, with a contempt for pomp and ceremony, and was well liked by the people, who called him the "Sailor King." He was the first William of Hanover, the second William of Ireland, the third William of Scotland, and the fourth William of England.

Now, you will be amazed to hear to what an absurd condition Parliamentary representation had come. You learned long ago how Simon de Montfort, in the reign of Henry III., labored to give the people a share in the making of the laws, and how he sent two men from every town and borough in England to speak and act for the people who lived in them. That was the way the House of Commons came into existence six hundred years before the time of William IV. Many of the old towns had decayed and vanished since the time of De Montfort, and new ones, like Manchester, Leeds, Birmingham, and Glasgow had grown into vigorous cities; but there had been no change in the system of representation. Thus many large cities were totally unrepresented



in Parliament; their citizens had no voice in legislation. On the other hand, many places that no longer existed, except in name, continued to send members. In some towns no one could vote except well-to-do householders; in others only the town officers had the right; while in still others every man who had a hut big enough to boil a pot in ("Potwallopers") possessed the coveted privilege. The owner of the land on which the towns and boroughs had once stood, still chose members and sent them to the House of Commons.

To illustrate, take the city of Old Sarum, in Wiltshire, which had so completely "gone to seed," that not a solitary house was left. As late as 1830 the owner of the land sent two members to Parliament, as had been the custom ever since the time of Simon de Montfort. Such places, and also the populous cities, where only the mayor, aldermen, and common council voted, were called "rotten boroughs." You will admit the appropriateness of the name.

In this country it would not have taken long to correct such a ridiculous state of affairs, which, indeed, never could have arisen; but year after year went by without any heed being paid to the demand of the unrepresented cities. Their cry grew louder, the leader in the movement being William Cobbett, who published a small newspaper, in which he bravely demanded a just system of representation. After William IV. came to the throne Lord John Russell, on the 1st of March, 1831, brought in a Reform Bill, which was so sweeping that it roused violent opposition. The Ministry was defeated, and persuaded the King to dissolve Parliament. Then a new House of Commons was elected under the battle cry of "The Bill, the whole Bill, and nothing but the Bill." The measure was sent to the House of Lords, who rejected it. The people were so incensed that riots broke out at Nottingham, Derby, Bristol, and other places. It was not until a third Reform Bill had been brought in by the Ministry and passed by the Commons that the Peers yielded, and it became a law, June 7, 1832. Even this would not have been accomplished had not the King, in obedience to the pressure put upon him, notified the House of Lords that if they refused their assent he would create a sufficient number of Whig lords to carry the measure.

This Reform Bill, one of the most important measures ever passed by Parliament, abolished the "rotten boroughs," gave a vote to every householder who paid a rent of \$50, gave two representatives to Birmingham, Leeds, Manchester, and nineteen other towns, and one representative each to twenty-one other places, until then unrepresented. Fifty-six boroughs were disfranchised, and forty-three new ones, beside thirty county constituencies, were created, while the county franchise was extended to copyholders, leaseholders, and the occupants of premises of certain values.

Many of the Tories were sure that the Reform meant the ruin of England. Even the brave old Duke of Wellington wrote: "I don't generally take a gloomy view of things, but I confess that, knowing all that I do, I cannot see what is to save the Church, or property, or colonies, or union with Ireland, or eventually monarchy, if the Reform Bill passes."

With the coming in of the new Parliament the Whigs began to take the name of Liberals and the Tories of Conservatives, which you hear nowadays, though the others are occasionally used.

Although the slave trade had been extinguished wherever the English power reached, slavery still existed in the colonies. In 1833, in the face of the King's opposition, a bill was passed by Parliament, which set free all negro slaves in British colonies. They numbered eight hundred thousand, and their owners were paid \$100,000,000 in the way of compensation. There were also thousands of white slaves in England at that time—wretched women and children who toiled in the factories till they dropped from exhaustion, and babes, six or seven years old, deep down in the mines, where they were cruelly beaten, and rarely had a glimpse of the golden sunlight. Parliament did not forget these unfortunates. The employment of women and young children in the collieries and factories was forbidden, and though human wisdom has never been able to abolish poverty and the sufferings of the poor, yet it can do and has done a great deal in the way of lessening those evils.

The year of 1830 was memorable in the history of England, for it was in its autumn that the Liverpool and Manchester Railway was opened and carriages were drawn for the first time by steam. The credit of this invention belongs to George Stephenson, who had been experimenting and studying the problem for years. The unpopular management of the pioneer Bridgewater Canal gave rise in 1821 to the project of a railway between Liverpool and Manchester, and Stephenson was chosen engineer. When he announced that, instead of horses, he intended to employ an engine that would travel at the rate of twelve miles an hour, nearly every one looked upon him as a lunatic. You know they always do. "Twelve miles an hour!" exclaimed the dignified *Quarterly Review*, "as well trust one's self to be fired off on a Congreve rocket." It is an odd coincidence that Stephenson's little engine bore the name of *Rocket*. After seemingly unsurmountable difficulties the line was completed in 1825, when there was a competition of engines, and the *Rocket* demonstrated its great superiority over all the others. What took away the breath of the spectators was the demonstration that under favorable conditions it could travel at the rate of thirty-five miles an hour!

A member of Parliament had thought he would silence the inventor with the crushing question:

"Suppose, Mr. Stephenson, a cow should get on the track in front of your locomotive—*what then?*"

"It would be bad for the cow," was the quizzical reply of the inventor, and how many thousands of times the truth of his words has been proved!

The Duke of Wellington was one of the passengers on the first railway train, and, though the opening day was marred by the accidental killing of a man, it marked an era in the industrial history of Great Britain, which, like our own country, has since been gridironed by railway lines. It may interest you to know that Robert Stephenson, son of George, became a more famous engineer than his father, who died in 1848, leaving his fortune to his only son. The latter visited South America to inspect the gold and silver mines there, and long before his father's retirement from active business was conceded to be the foremost engineer in Europe. The principal great works with which his name is connected are the High Level Bridge over the Tyne, the Tweed Viaduct, the Britannia Bridge over the Menai Straits, the Victoria Bridge at Montreal, across the St. Lawrence, one of the grandest of all engineering achievements, and the Alexandria and Cairo Railway.

Of course you know what our forefathers had to do to start a fire. They sometimes made use of the convex or burning glass, but as the sun did not always shine, they had to resort to the flint and tinder. By quickly striking a glancing blow with a piece of steel against a flint, sparks were produced which were made to catch upon tinder or a prepared rag, which was afterward blown into a flame. It was a slow and awkward process, and you can understand what a trial it often became to one's patience. Many a boy, after blowing till he was tired out, has had to give it up and turn the task over to his father or older brother. After years of experiment, an English apothecary invented the friction match, which, as time went on, was greatly improved, until it has now become one of the most useful little conveniences in every household.

William IV. passed away at Windsor Castle, June 20, 1837. His two daughters by his wife, Princess Adelaide of Saxe-Meiningen, died in infancy. This left as the heir to the throne Princess Alexandrina Victoria, the only child of his brother, Edward, Duke of Kent. Victoria was living with her widowed mother at the time, and was only eighteen years old. She was a religious girl, conscientious to the last degree, and destined to become one of the noblest queens that ever lived. Early that bright summer morning in 1837 she was suddenly awakened and told, much to her amazement, that she was Queen of Great Britain.

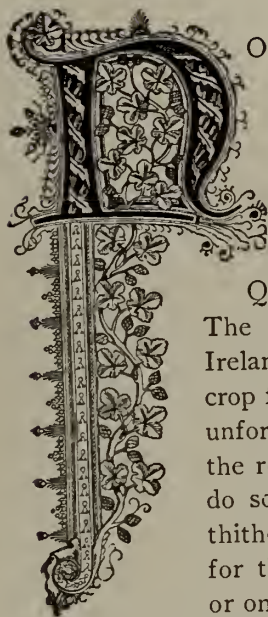




THE SEPOY MUTINY IN INDIA

## Chapter CXVII

### THE VICTORIAN ERA



O sovereign could have received a more enthusiastic welcome than Queen Victoria, and this loyalty and affection increased until her death, after the longest reign of any sovereign over Great Britain. The tribute came to her because she was worthy of it, and no matter who may come after her, none can ever hold a warmer place in the hearts of her people than she.

Queen Victoria came to the throne in troublous times. The price of corn was so high that for years the people of Ireland had lived wholly upon potatoes. The failure of the crop for several years caused such an appalling famine in that unfortunate island in 1846 that all must have perished had not the rest of the world come to their relief. Among the first to do so was our own country, which sent shiploads of provisions thither, while Parliament appropriated \$50,000,000 to buy food for the sufferers. Despite all these charities, two millions, or one-fourth of the population of Ireland, died of starvation.

Now there had existed for years a heavy duty upon the importation of corn. The ground upon which the Corn Laws were upheld was that home agriculture ought to be protected, and that a country, so far as practical, should depend upon itself for its supply of food. On the other hand, it was maintained that the Corn Laws profited only the land-owners and grievously oppressed the poor people. The Anti-Corn-Law League, formed in 1839, grew in numbers and strength, but it took the awful famine in Ireland to bring it success. The very year of the famine (1846) Sir Robert Peel, Prime Minister and leader of



the Conservatives, carried through bills reducing to a nominal figure the duties on foreign corn, cattle, and various productions. The law came into complete operation in 1849, and Great Britain has ever since been a free-trade country.

On the 10th of February, 1840, the Queen married her cousin, Prince Albert of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha. The marriage was what is almost unknown among royal couples—a genuine love match, and the two lived ideally happy lives until the death of the Prince Consort, in December, 1861.

When you think of the King of England, you naturally suppose he has more power than the President of the United States, and yet he has less. If a measure after passing both houses of Congress is submitted to the President, and he dislikes it, he sends it back with a statement of his reasons, and it then requires a two-thirds vote to pass it over his veto. It is in his power to defeat a measure that is preferred by a majority of Congress, and he frequently does so.

Again, the President chooses his own members of the Cabinet. True, he sends the names to the Senate for confirmation, but the political situation must be very remarkable when the Senate is discourteous enough to refuse its approval. Moreover, the President has practically unlimited power in removing any member of his Cabinet. When Victoria became Queen, she accepted the principle that she could not remove the Minister or his Cabinet without the consent of the House of Commons, nor would she venture to keep a Ministry which that body refused to support.

Another custom has acquired the force of law: the sovereign has no veto power whatever. The King or Queen, as it may be, must approve every bill passed by Parliament. As has been said, if the two Houses should agree upon the King's death warrant and send it to him, he must sign it or abdicate.

The "Opium War" in which England engaged in 1839, was disgraceful to her. In the year named the Chinese Emperor forbade the importation of the poisonous drug into that country. England was largely engaged in cultivating opium in India for the Chinese market, and forbade the Emperor to interfere. War followed, with the result that the Chinese were compelled to allow the drug which destroys the bodies and souls of millions, to be brought into their country as before, while the opium planters of India and the English traders reaped a golden harvest in thus violating the sacred rights of a heathen people. A bully does not stop when he merely browbeats his enemy, and Great Britain compelled the opening of Hong Kong and several important ports to British trade, subsequent wars adding others.

The war of 1838 in Afghanistan brought dreadful disasters to the British troops who occupied the country. An uprising of the natives compelled them to retreat from Cabul in 1842, and the troops were annihilated in the mountain

defiles. The following year a war broke out with the Ameers of Sind, and their country was conquered by Sir Charles Napier. The disturbances in the Punjaub ended in the annexation of that country in 1849 to the British dominions; while the province of Pegu was wrenched from the Burman Empire and added to the British in 1852, in which year also New Zealand was colonized.

It seems to be the decree of perverse fate that Turkey shall be the bone of contention among the leading Powers. Any disturbance of her government or boundaries must threaten the "balance of power," as it is termed, and the mutual jealousy of those Powers will not permit that. Turkey, therefore, is the intolerable nuisance among nations. She is corrupt, treacherous, and cruel to the last degree, her most cherished amusement being that of massacring Christians. Gladstone well named the Sultan the "Great Assassin," while the "unspeakable Turk" for generations has stood as the type of unbridled ferocity. Well would it be for Christendom could the whole country and its people be sunk to the bottom of the sea; but since that is out of the question, other nations continue to quarrel over her.

Nicholas, Czar of Russia, who had long cast covetous eyes upon Constantinople, thought the time had come, in 1852, for him to take a step toward acquiring that city. His pretext was the restrictions laid by the Sultan upon Christians in Palestine. He demanded that he should be made the protector of Christianity throughout Turkey, and the scheme he proposed would have made St. Petersburg the real capital of the Ottoman Empire.

England and France were quick to scent the danger. Turkey declared war against Russia in 1853, and soon after England and France joined as allies of Turkey. The English campaign was marked by the worst blunders conceivable. While ships laden with provisions and clothing, enough for ten times as many troops, lay within sight of Sebastopol, thousands of the soldiers starved and froze to death in their rags. Hardly one out of ten of those who were sent to the hospitals lived to come out again. Had the death rate continued for a little more than a year, not an English soldier would have been left alive! To Florence Nightingale and her assistants is due the credit of redeeming the unpardonable failure of the nation.

The allied armies triumphed in the end. Russia was forced to give up her demands, and suffered the humiliation of being shut out from the waters of her own Black Sea, where none had dared to dispute her. It cost twenty thousand of the flower of British youth to do this, and the sacrifice left the Turks free to work their wicked will upon eight million Christians, as they have done many a time since.

The Sepoy Mutiny of 1857-58 was one of the most terrible uprisings in history. It was due to several causes, the principal being the belief of the

fanatical population that the English were trying to undermine their religion. The native Indian troops were ordered to use cartridges lubricated with hog's grease, and they had at times to hold the cartridges in their teeth. Now everything connected with hog-eating is an unspeakable abomination to the Mussulman and the Hindoo, who are ready at all times to face death for the sake of their faith. The revolt broke out at Meerut in June, 1857, and ran like a prairie fire. The native troops, or Sepoys, were good soldiers, but they turned against their English officers, and cut them down without mercy. The mind can conceive of no more horrifying ferocities than were committed by these fiends upon the helpless women and children, nor can England be blamed for inflicting upon some of them the only punishment they dreaded—that of being blown to pieces at the cannon's mouth, since that made it impossible to give the remains burial.

Scores of thrilling incidents marked the suppression of the Sepoy Mutiny, among which were the two massacres at Cawnpore; the relief of Cawnpore and Lucknow by General Havelock, the Christian soldier; the siege of the Lucknow Residency and its relief by Sir Colin Campbell; the siege of the mutineers at Delhi and its capture by British troops, and the final taking of Lucknow by Lord Clyde in March, 1858.

After the crushing of the revolt all political power was withdrawn from the East India Company, and the country was brought under the direct rule of the British crown. The "Governor-General" became "Viceroy," with a Council, and the supreme power of India was subject to the Secretary of State in England. In 1876, Queen Victoria was proclaimed Empress of India.

Let us finish our glance at that part of the world by saying that after many revolts and much strife, England succeeded in placing a friendly ruler at the head of affairs in Afghanistan, and kept him there until his recent death, by the payment of a yearly allowance of \$600,000. In January, 1886, the drunken King of Burmah, who had misused English traders, was ousted and Upper Burmah was annexed to India. In 1887, Russia, which is very jealous of England's growing power in that region, agreed upon a new boundary between Russian territory and Afghanistan, with a view of preserving peace, which has been threatened more than once. Russia, however, continues to edge her way forward, and it is believed by many that the next great war will be kindled in that part of Asia.

It is the proud boast of Great Britain that she gives vigorous protection to all her subjects, no matter how humble they happen to be. Let some Englishman in a remote corner of the world be maltreated by any potentate, and as soon as the news can be carried home a fleet will probably be sent thither and the



offending potentate given the choice of making the most ample reparation or having his cities battered to ruins about him. Theodore, King of Abyssinia, barbarously abused two representatives of England and refused to give satisfaction for just claims against him. War was declared, and, in the autumn of 1867, an army of ten thousand men, under the command of Sir Robert Napier, landed at Massouah. Magdala was conquered the following April, and the death of King Theodore followed. The repairing of the wrong done her two representatives cost England \$44,895,000.

In the spring of 1861 the American War for the Union, the most tremendous struggle of modern times, broke out and lasted four years. You do not need to be reminded that Napoleon, Emperor of France, was one of the most malignant enemies of the Union, and that Queen Victoria was one of its warmest friends. While Great Britain showed an enmity wholly unjustifiable, and gave great assistance to the Southern Confederacy, the Queen and the Prince Consort never wavered in their friendliness. The affair of the *Trent*, at the beginning of the war, would have brought us in armed collision with Great Britain had not Secretary Seward withdrawn from the wrong position he had taken, and had not the Queen done her utmost to soothe the anger of her countrymen. It is worth remembering that Lord John Russell, Foreign Secretary, Lord Brougham, Carlyle, Ruskin, the *London Times*, and *Punch*, all took the part of the South, and even Gladstone declared that Jefferson Davis had founded a new nation.

Hon. Abram Hewitt, formerly Mayor of New York, has publicly stated that in 1862, while on a confidential mission for our government to England and France, Minister Dayton asked him to leave for London at once to notify Minister Adams that Napoleon III. had proposed to the British government to recognize the Southern Confederacy. There was imminent danger that England would join in such recognition, and Hewitt made all haste to London. Lord John Russell was so evasive that Minister Adams demanded the privilege of seeing the Queen, for it was evident to him that something of the most momentous importance was on foot. It was an unusual privilege that was asked, but Mr. Adams went to Windsor, where he saw the Queen personally. He laid the case before her, and appealed against so monstrous a wrong, declaring that it would produce universal war, for the United States would fight the whole world rather than give up the Union. In the presence of Prince Albert the Queen said:

"Mr. Adams, give yourself no concern; my government will not recognize the Confederacy."

"The Queen was the friend of peace," said Mr. Hewitt; "she was the friend of the United States; and it is a debt of gratitude, which can never be



discharged by any amount of homage which we Americans can bring and offer upon the tomb of this great sovereign and this good woman."

The Reform Bill of 1832 was a great stride forward, but for years a sentiment had been growing, that it fell short of its purpose. Other advances came, as usual, very slowly. In 1835, taxpayers in most of the cities were given control of municipal elections, and later the ballot in local affairs was extended to some women. Suffrage to single women and widows, who were householders, was granted in 1869, and the next year they were empowered to vote at school elections and serve as members of school boards.

Down to 1858 the Jews were shut out from Parliament by the provision that they should make oath "on the faith of a Christian." This law was so changed that Baron Rothschild, the famous Jewish banker, was able to take his seat among the legislators of the country. Disraeli, leader of the Conservative party, carried through a Reform Bill, in 1867, which gave the right to vote to every householder who paid a tax for the support of the poor, and to all lodgers paying a rental of \$50 yearly. In 1886, under the Liberal ministry of Gladstone, a third Reform Bill gave all the residents of counties in the United Kingdom the same right to vote, as was held by those in towns.

The two ministers just mentioned, Disraeli and Gladstone, were, during most of this period, the great parliamentary leaders of England. Disraeli first entered Parliament as a free-lance, attached to no party. His tone, however, was antagonistic to the Liberals, and at his first attempt to make a speech they howled him down, breaking in on his effort with cat-calls and laughter. At last he stopped in anger and shouted high above the din: "I have begun many things, many times, and have generally succeeded in the end. I sit down now; but the time will come when you will hear me."

The bold boast came true. Disraeli united with the Conservatives and became their leader, the most brilliant and sarcastic of their orators, the pride of his friends, the dread and scourge of his too-confident adversaries. He was made Lord Beaconsfield, and was through two administrations Prime Minister of England. He died in 1881.

A system of public schools was established throughout the kingdom in 1870. Since they were under the direction of a government board, they were known as "Board Schools." This system makes elementary instruction compulsory, the expense being so slight that it is within the means of the poorest. The next year the universities and colleges were thrown open to all of whatever religious belief. Previous to this no one was graduated from Oxford or Cambridge unless he subscribed to the doctrines of the Church of England.

Ireland had long been in a woful condition. Most of the valuable land was owned by Englishmen, whose ancestors had obtained it through the wholesale

confiscation by the conquerors of the country. They preferred to live in England, and employed overseers to wring every penny possible out of the tenants. If the latter improved the land and raised better and larger crops, their rent was increased, so that they had no inducement to better their condition. Mr. Gladstone, while Prime Minister and head of the Liberal party, introduced a bill in 1870 for the relief of the Irish peasantry. It provided that if a landlord ejected a tenant he should pay him for damages, and allow him for whatever improvements he had made. Arbitration was secured for the settlement of disputes between landlords and tenants. A Land Commission was formed with the power to reduce rents when advisable, and fixing the rent for a number of years. Still later a Land Purchase Commission was organized to assist tenants to buy their farms by a loan under easy conditions of payment. These measures were part of a general movement of agrarian reconstruction of Ireland, in which both Conservative and Liberal governments assisted. All this time the peasantry, aided by the Land League, kept up a determined struggle against some of the hated landlords, and Coercion Acts were passed, one of the most drastic being under Gladstone's administration. The Irish League had a membership of several hundred thousand, who resorted to "boycotting" (so-called from an overseer named Boycott), burned buildings belonging to landlords and their agents, mutilated horses and cattle, and killed a number of the most obnoxious agents. Their rallying cry was "Death to Landlords! No Rent!" Many tenants refused to pay for the lands they held, and assaulted those who did. Finally the government suppressed the Land League, which was looked upon as responsible for these outrages, but the embers of the fire still smouldered, ready to burst forth at the first opportunity.

The Second Irish Land Act was carried through by Mr. Gladstone, in 1881, and was popularly known as the "Three F's"—Fair rent, Fixity-of-tenure, and Free-sale. It gave the tenant the right to appeal to a board of land commissioners, appointed to fix the rate of his rent, when the demands of the landlord were unreasonable. Provided he paid the rate fixed, he was allowed to hold the land for fifteen years, during which the rent could not be increased, nor could the tenant be evicted, except for violation of the agreement or continued neglect of the land. Finally, he was at liberty to sell his tenancy whenever he chose.

After the Second Land Act had become law, Lord Frederick Cavendish, Chief Secretary of Ireland, and Mr. Burke, a leading government official, were assassinated in Phoenix Park, Dublin, after which the members of different secret societies made use of the fearful explosive, dynamite, in perpetrating outrages in London and elsewhere. These crimes were denounced by the chiefs of the Irish National Party, who demanded Home Rule, under the lead of

Charles S. Parnell, "the uncrowned king of Ireland," a member of Parliament. In 1886, Gladstone brought in a bill for the establishment of an Irish Parliament, but it was defeated. On his return to power, in 1893, he introduced a similar measure, which was carried through the Commons, but all his masterful eloquence could not save it from defeat in the House of Lords.

Then, indeed, there were exciting times in England. Gladstone talked seriously of bringing in a bill to abolish the House of Lords. Finding, however, that many of his party were unwilling to follow him in such an extreme measure, and being sick and exhausted with struggle, he resigned from power in 1894. His death followed in 1898. He is admitted by all parties to have been the greatest English statesman since Pitt, and, perhaps, the ablest debater who ever appeared in Parliament.

Queen Victoria held so prominent a place among the world's rulers that you will be interested in learning more about her than has been told in the preceding pages.

When she was born in the apartments of her father, the Duke of Kent, in Kensington Palace, her godfathers were the Emperor Alexander of Russia and her uncle, the Prince Regent, who was afterward George IV. Her father seemed to believe from the first that she would come to the throne of England, and wished her to be named Elizabeth, probably because he hoped her reign would rival in splendor that of the great queen. The Prince Regent wanted her to be called Georgianna, and when the Archbishop of Canterbury asked him at the font what the child's name was to be he replied, "Alexandrina"—the feminine form of the Czar's name. The Duke of Kent begged that some other name might be added, whereupon his eldest brother said: "Then give her the name of her mother also, but it may not precede that of the Emperor." Thus it was that she received the name of Alexandrina Victoria.

Her father died from a chill before she was a year old, but her mother, the Duchess of Kent, lived to see her become queen and the mother of a large family. She was educated with the utmost care, and, as you know, grew to be one of the most admirable of women, so truly religious and pure in her life that never was the slightest whisper of scandal connected with her name, though she lived for more than three-score years in the "fierce light" that beats upon a throne. From the very beginning of her reign the court life of England underwent a radical change. Referring to the purer and higher tone that prevailed in royal circles under Victoria, the *London Times* said:

"It is hard to overstate, for example, the effect of such a purification of the court as her reign has witnessed: one may perhaps measure it by imagining what would have happened to England had the reign of Carlton House (George IV.) lasted for sixty years, and the reign of Buckingham Palace, of Balmoral



and of Osborne not existed at all. By a similar test, we can roughly measure the political value of such a character, such a career, such a temper as the Queen's. Imagine a long continuance in power of any of Her Majesty's uncles, even of William IV., the most kindly of them all. A long reign of such a kind in times so critical as those from 1840 to 1870 would have been a grave misfortune."

One day in winter when the young Queen and her husband were riding in an open carriage up Constitution Hill, accompanied by their usual attendants, a young man suddenly aimed a pistol at her and pulled the trigger, but missed. Before he could be prevented, he drew a second weapon, fired, and again missed. At this juncture he was seized, disarmed, and handed over to the police. He made no resistance, and at the police station described himself as Edward Oxford, a barman. He was sentenced to imprisonment "during the Queen's pleasure," but it appearing afterward that he was insane, he was released and went to Australia.

The first child born to the Queen, November 13, 1840, was the Princess Royal, Victoria Adelaide, who became the wife of the Emperor Frederick of Germany. Four days less than a year later Albert Edward, who was to be Edward VII., was born. The remaining children were Alice Maud Mary, Grand Duchess of Hesse (1843); Alfred, Duke of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, Duke of Edinburgh (1844); Helena, Princess Christian (1846); Louise, Duchess of Argyll (1848); Arthur, Duke of Connaught (1850); Leopold, Duke of Albany (1853); Beatrice Mary Victoria Feodore (1857).

There was great rejoicing over the birth of the Prince of Wales. The Queen directed that convicts who had behaved well should have their sentences commuted, and she issued a patent creating the month-old baby, Prince of Wales and Earl of Chester. He was already Duke of Saxony, Duke of Cornwall and Rothesay, Earl of Carrick, Baron of Renfrew, Lord of the Isles and Great Steward of Scotland. The principal guest at the young prince's christening was the King of Prussia, who stood sponsor. The Prince married Princess Alexandra, of Denmark, on March 10, 1863.

In the year 1842 the agitation over the repeal of the Corn Laws was growing. There was rioting in the mining districts, and fear of a Chartist uprising. The Queen opened Parliament in person, and read the speech from the throne. To relieve the distress in London, she gave a great fancy ball, hoping thereby to stimulate trade. It was famous as the Plantagenet ball, the Queen appearing as Philippa, consort of Edward III., and the Prince Consort as Edward III. Although the West End traders were helped, the sufferers at the other end of London felt no benefits.

About this time two further attempts were made on the Queen's life. As



she was driving down Constitution Hill a man named John Francis fired a pistol at her, but the weapon was dashed up by a policeman who saw it drawn. Her Majesty and her husband, as in the former instance, remained cool, and appeared at the opera that night. Francis was tried for high treason and sentenced to death. The Queen made the mistake committed by more than one sovereign, of reprieving the assassin. She was rewarded the following Sunday by a similar attempt by William Been, a druggist's assistant, but his pistol missed fire. It seems to take sovereigns a long while to learn that all leniency in such cases is worse than thrown away, for it encourages anarchists and morbid seekers after notoriety. A bill introduced by Sir Robert Peel, which became law, made all attempts on the Queen's life high misdemeanors, punishable by transportation for seven years, or imprisonment, with or without hard labor, the culprit to be whipped publicly or privately not more than three times.

The Queen made her first visit to Scotland, of which she was fond, in 1842, and was greeted everywhere with great enthusiasm. Later she and the Prince Consort went to France, and were received with much ceremony by King Louis Philippe. It was the first time that an English monarch had gone thither since the Field of the Cloth of Gold, when Henry VIII. met the French sovereign.

In 1848, Louis Philippe, who had received the Queen with so much pomp and spendor, presented himself in England under the name of plain "John Smith," being a fugitive from the uprising in his own country. Although hospitable to the exiled King and Queen, Victoria held that the actual government should be recognized.

In May, 1848, William Hamilton fired a pistol at the Queen, but missed. He narrowly escaped lynching. He was tried and sentenced to transportation for seven years. The same year saw the Queen's first visit to Ireland. She and her husband were greeted with such wild enthusiasm by the impulsive people, that at Dublin she caught the contagion, and, before any one could interfere, climbed the paddle box unaided and excitedly waved her handkerchief to the cheering thousands on shore.

In 1850, soon after the birth of Prince Arthur, Lieutenant Pate, a coxcomb, struck at the Queen with his cane as she was leaving Cambridge House. Her face was bruised, but her bonnet saved her from serious injury. As usual, the plea of insanity was set up and all the punishment he received was the regulation seven years.

The principal domestic event of 1851 was the opening of the Great Exhibition in Hyde Park, which proved the beginning of the world's fairs that have been held so many times in different countries. The Queen shared with all England the sorrow over the death of the Duke of Wellington, which took place in 1852.



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